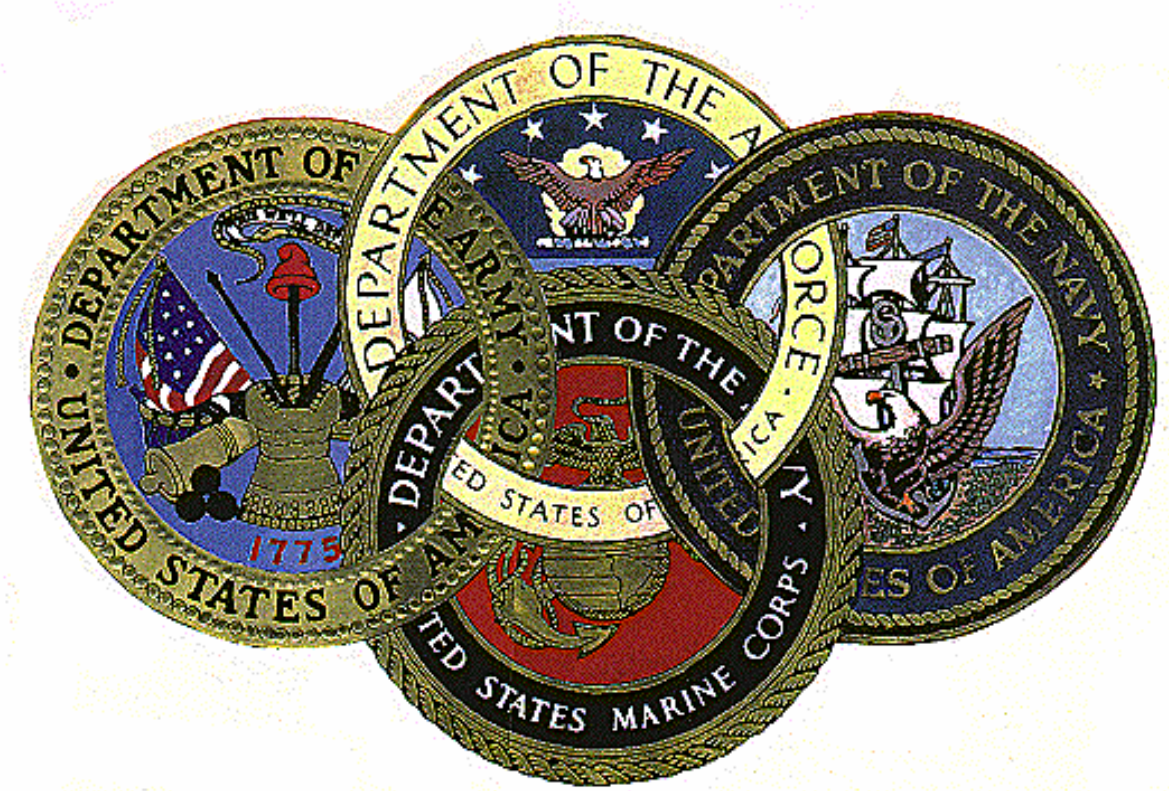
DEPARTMENT OF MILITARY STRATEGY, PLANNING AND OPERATIONS

U.S. Army War College



CAMPAIGN PLANNING PRIMER

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Introduction

This Primer has only one purpose: to provide some detail on "how" a campaign plan is developed. It is based on joint doctrine, which is very much in flux, but still fairly clear in concept, to clarify the planning process and enable planning. It simply provides some insights on "practice" to enable the "concepts" described in joint doctrine. Methods or techniques discussed in this document do not provide "the solution" to campaign planning, but rather "a solution" or process to consider.

Campaign planning has been used by commanders to synchronize efforts and sequence several related operations throughout history. George Washington planned his campaign of 1781 to coordinate the actions of the French Fleet with his Franco-American land army to destroy the British forces at Yorktown. General U. S. Grant planned simultaneous offensives by Generals Sherman and Meade against the Confederacy in his plan for the 1864 campaign. During World War II, campaign planning became essential to coordinate the actions of joint and combined forces in all Allied theaters. As a mature example of campaign planning in the later stages of World War II in the Pacific Theater of War, General Douglas MacArthur issued his Strategic Plan for Operations in the Japanese Archipelago (DOWNFALL) in May 1945. In this twenty-five page document, MacArthur described how the plan "… visualizes attainment of the assigned objectives by two (2) successive operations (OLYMPIC and CORONET)." The cover letter describes this plan as a "general guide covering the larger phases of allocation of means and of coordination, both operational and logistic. It is not designed to restrict executing agencies in detailed development of their final plans of operation." Unfortunately, during the 1960s and 1970s, campaign planning was virtually replaced at the theater level by the Department of Defense (DoD)-directed, computer-supported Joint Operations Planning System (JOPS) which emphasized deployment planning. Campaign planning received new emphasis after Operation DESERT STORM in which General Norman Schwartzkopf used a campaign plan to guide the synchronized employment of his forces. In the wake of Operations ENDURING FREEDOM and IRAQI FREEDOM, campaign planning has been a high priority within the DoD, and emerging concepts are being integrated into the campaign planning process to enable an increased level of operational art throughout the U.S. military.

JP 1-02 defines a campaign plan as "a plan for a series of related military operations aimed at accomplishing a strategic or operational objective within a given time and space." It is the operational extension of a combatant commander's theater strategy that embodies his vision of operations needed to attain the strategic objectives assigned by (or derived from) higher authority. It orients on the enemy's centers of gravity; achieves unity of effort with unified action (joint, combined, and interagency); clearly defines what constitutes success in terms of both objectives and effects to be achieved; and serves as the basis for subordinate planning. Through theater campaign plans, combatant commanders define the end state and objectives, describe desired effects, develop a concept of operations, communicate intent to subordinates, sequence operations, organize forces, establish command

relationships, assign tasks, and synchronize air, land, sea, and space operations and their sustainment. In addition, by means of a campaign plan, combatant commanders can both shape policy and provide the President, Secretary of Defense (SECDEF), and the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS) information needed for inter-theater coordination at the national level.

Campaigns are waged in a theater of war: land, sea, and air space, as well as in the information "space." They may be conducted along more than one line of operation, both physical and logical. Theater campaigns synthesize military deployment, employment, sustainment, and supporting operations into a coherent whole, and also integrate the economic, diplomatic and informational elements of national power to achieve strategic objectives. They are normally planned before hostilities and guide execution during them. For global scale conflicts, more than one campaign may be required to accomplish a strategic objective, or a global campaign plan may be developed to integrate operations across several theaters.

Currently, Joint Publications 3-0 and 5-0 remain in draft, but the basic construct of campaign planning appears to be accepted. Our recent experiences in Afghanistan (OEF) and Iraq (OIF), and the SECDEF's desire to standardize phasing in OPLANs across the combatant commands, has led DoD to rethink the current doctrinal phasing template. Figure 1 is a graphic depiction of campaign phasing as described in the draft (X Month 2006) JP 3-0. Essentially, a Phase 0 has been added to capture those theater shaping actions occurring during Theater Security Cooperation activities that directly impact the transition to war in the OPLAN. Additionally, the old Phase IV has been subdivided into two phases to better describe the post-hostilities environment. Despite these and other possible changes to doctrine, combatant commanders will retain the flexibility to phase, and name the phases of their campaigns in the manner they choose, so conduct of the planning will not be impacted. In the end, if the changes help the civilian leadership better understand the combatant commanders' plans, it will have much value.

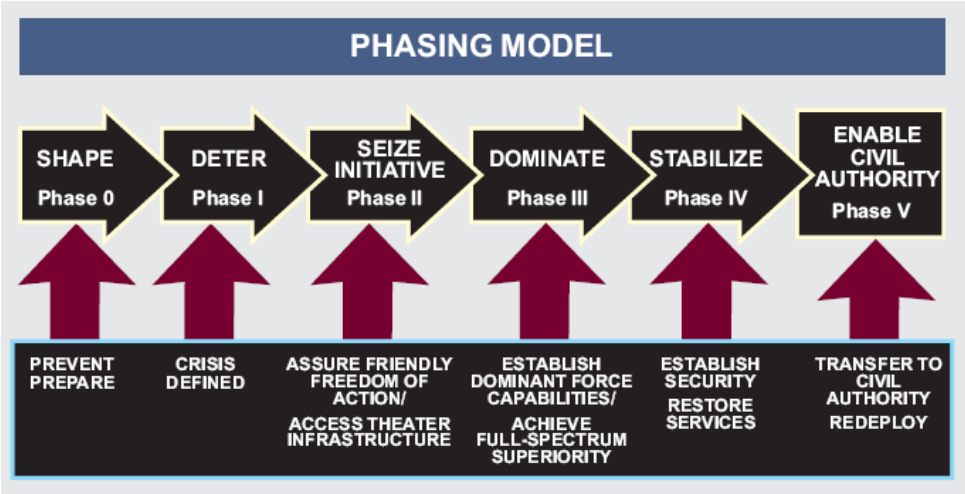

Figure 1: Campaign Phasing

Campaign Planning Process

For the past two decades, the campaign planning process has been the aggregate of two distinct planning processes: Contingency (deliberate) and Crisis Action planning. As technologies improved to enable collaboration, and our level of operational art increased, these two planning processes began to merge. DoD's initiative to adopt a more adaptive planning process, does exactly that; it further consolidates the two campaign planning processes. With adaptive planning, most procedures for developing a campaign plan remain the same. Staffs must still conduct mission analysis, develop an estimate, develop a strategic concept, and construct supporting plans – these processes cannot be overlooked. However, there are three major changes that will impact how a plan is developed. First, adaptive planning mandates a slate of four In-Progress-Reviews (IPR) to provide the SECDEF visibility of the plan while the plan is being developed. This will allow greater civilian oversight of the process and ensure the combatant commander's and SECDEF's understanding of, and agreement on, strategic objectives. Second, new software technologies now allow for the two planning processes (contingency and crisis action) to be further blended into one. Third, timelines for plan development have been compressed from 18 - 24 months, to only 12 months (with an eventual goal of 6 months) to complete a plan. The adaptive planning concept continues to evolve, but technological improvements, especially to support analysis, are required to fully realize the concept's potential.

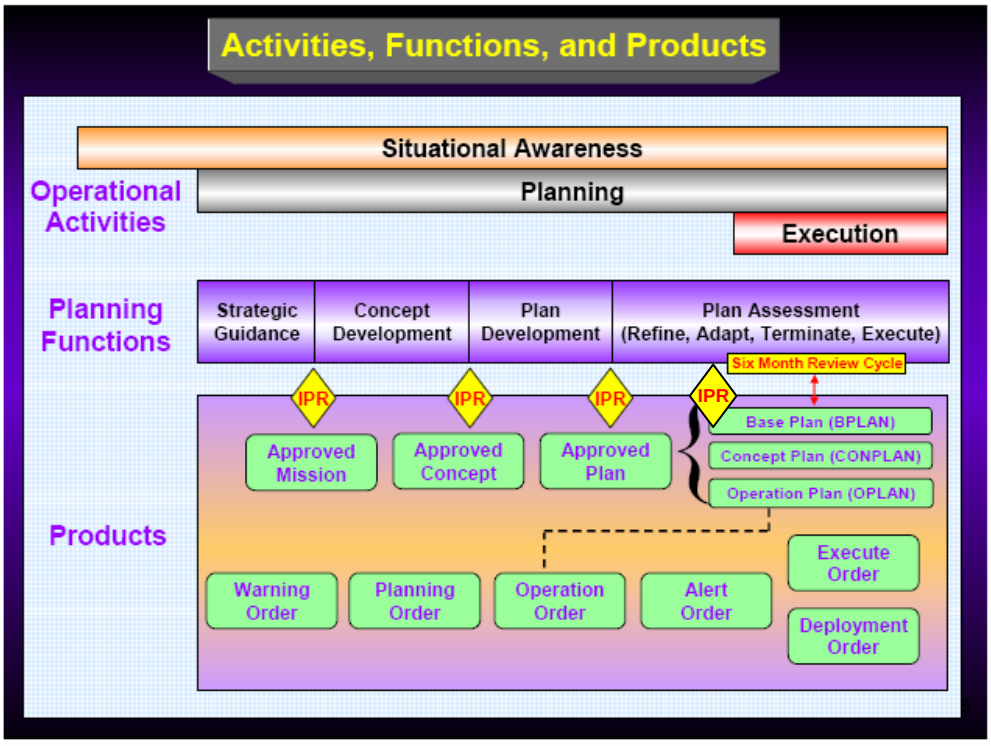

FIGURE 2: Joint Operation Planning Activities, Functions and Products

Campaign planning may begin anytime, but is not completed until the final operation within a campaign is executed. However, the basis and framework for successful campaigns are laid by peacetime analysis, planning, exercises, and application of campaign planning principles. Figure 2 depicts the campaign planning process, functions and products required as adaptive planning evolves.

There are three ways a campaign plan may be developed. First, a campaign may be planned during peacetime as directed by the Chairman's Joint Strategic Capabilities Plan (JSCP), or by direction of a Combatant Commander (CCDR). For example, USCENTCOM planners developed the OPLAN to defend Kuwait from Iraqi attack in the summer of 1995 in response to a FY 94 JSCP regional tasking. The deployment, deterrence, and strike provisions within the Iraq OPLAN served this country well for a half decade, serving as the basis for Operations VIGILANT WARRIOR, VIGILANT SENTINEL, DESERT STRIKE, DESERT THUNDER, and DESERT FOX. Second, a campaign plan may be developed by refining an existing plan. This is often the case because military and political conditions are constantly in flux. Planning for OIF is a good example. In this case, the Iraq OPLAN was modified to fit the political, military, and social conditions in Iraq in late 2002. The result was OPLAN 1003V which was executed in early 2003. Third, a campaign plan may be developed during a crisis where no previous plan exists. Such was the case in Afghanistan where no JSCP or combatant commander-directed plan existed before the crisis began. The OEF campaign plan was developed from scratch in September-October 2001. Regardless of the conditions in which the plans are developed, campaign planning principles guide the formation of the plan.

Planning During Peacetime

Peacetime planning results in joint operation plans for contingencies as directed by joint strategic planning documents, or the combatant commander. At the national level, these planning documents include the Secretary of Defense's annual Contingency Planning Guidance (CPG), and the JSCP. The JSCP provides guidance to all combatant commanders and Service chiefs for accomplishing military tasks and missions based on current military capabilities. JSCP-directed planning is a highly structured process that is designed to develop well-coordinated theater level plans against the most dangerous or likely global threats to the nation. Similarly, the combatant commanders may direct theater level plans beyond what is specified in the JSCP, based solely upon analysis of their theater strategies. Peacetime planning is proactive, and therefore planners rely heavily on assumptions regarding the political, economic and military environments in which the plan may be executed. These plans undergo extensive coordination within the DoD and interagency communities, and in some cases, with multinational partners. As such, they normally take up to a year to complete and are published as Base Plans, CONPLANs or OPLANs that vary in detail, depending upon JSCP or combatant commander instructions. They may therefore, may require significant refinement before they can be executed.

Planning During Crisis

Crisis planning is based on actual events. As the crisis unfolds, assumptions and projections are replaced by facts and actual conditions. Peacetime planning supports crisis planning by anticipating potential crises and developing joint operation plans that facilitate rapid refinement and selection of a course of action. If the actual crisis conditions closely match the assumptions in a previously developed plan, then the decision-making cycle resulting in the selection of a course of action may be greatly accelerated. If the crisis conditions partially match what's stated in an existing plan, then the existing plan may be modified to meet the current political and military environment. If the crisis develops in a location or between adversaries not previously contemplated, or the assumptions on which the existing plan is based are generally invalid, then an entirely new plan must be developed.

Planning during crisis is often conducted in a time-sensitive environment, so the process is intentionally flexible and is normally focused on immediate operational requirements. The procedures provide for the timely flow of information and intelligence; and rapid communication of decisions from the President and SECDEF to combatant commanders, subordinate JTFs, component commanders and supporting commanders to better enable expeditious execution planning. Planning during crises may contain both proactive and reactive characteristics, as well as be assumptive and factual. Plans developed during crises normally take much less time to complete (days/weeks) than those planned during peacetime, and will therefore be less coordinated throughout the DoD and interagency communities. An executable Operations Order (OPORD) normally results from planning during crisis.

Planning During Conflict

Campaign planning doesn't end when the conflict begins. A campaign plan is a living document built on many assumptions that may or may not remain valid. As the campaign progresses, planners must always evaluate the plan against the current situation and update its facts and assumptions appropriately. Plans must be continually adjusted, and branches and sequels created to accommodate future options, uncertainties, and opportunities if the plan is to be of any help to the combatant commander. Furthermore, the plan must provide a basis for OPORD development to synchronize component activities at the operational level of war. Unlike during peacetime and crisis, planning during conflict is primarily reactive, has an operational vice strategic focus, and is completed in very compressed (hours/days) timelines.

Joint Operation Planning Process and Actions

Theater commanders perform the planning actions shown in Figure 3. At the strategic and operational levels, the processes and actions portray an orderly series of activities that occur within the *Joint Operation Planning Process* (JOPP).

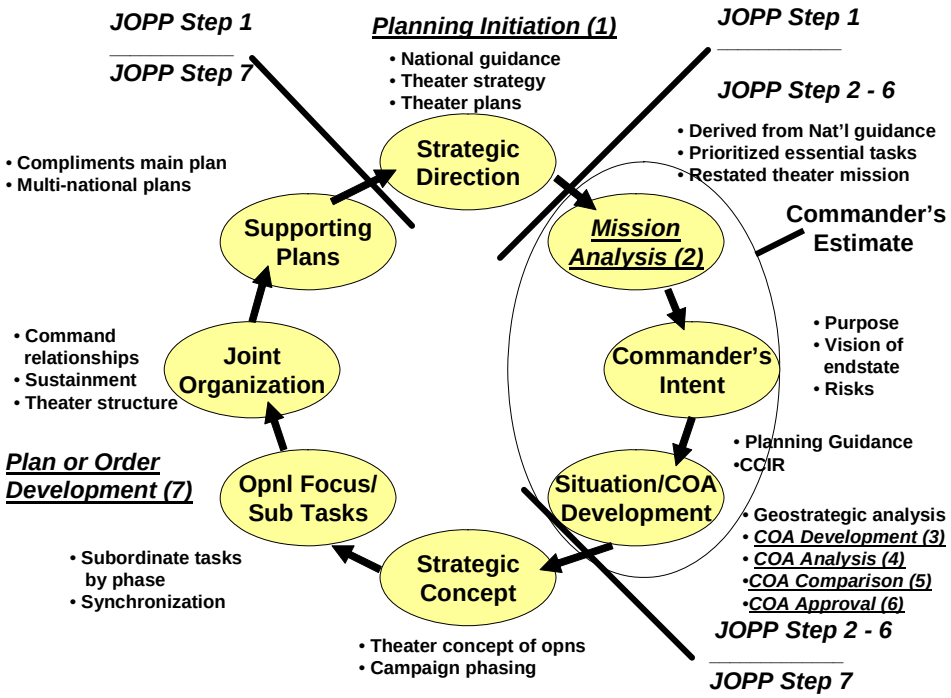

FIGURE 3: Joint Operation Planning Process (Steps 1-7) and Actions

This process and associated actions assist theater planners in developing and refining operations to achieve strategic objectives. They capture the elements of campaign planning and are continually reviewed and revised to ensure the plan does not become outdated, unworkable, or overcome by critical events.

The national or multinational strategic guidance the combatant commander receives from higher authority, whether explicit or implicit, drives the process. Strategic guidance is expressed through the National Security Strategy and National Military Strategy, as well as from a variety of other means. After receiving strategic guidance, the combatant commander then systematically develops his restated mission and commander's intent; conducts detailed situation analysis, and develops courses of action; all of which are part of the commander's estimate. The combatant commander then develops the strategic concept of operations (including phases), objectives, and determines subordinate tasks, command relationships and organizations, and requirements for sustainment and supporting plans. This sequence is a simplified outline of a process that's dynamic and non-linear, and

absolutely critical to enable successful planning. Actions, such as revising intent and estimates, are continuous and concurrent.

Planning Initiation (JOPP Step 1)

The JOPP begins when an appropriate authority recognizes that military capabilities may be required to resolve a potential or actual crisis. Campaign planning may be initiated by a combatant commander based upon specific Presidential/SECDEF/CJCS guidance; national documents such as the JSCP and the Unified Command Plan (UCP); or from combatant commander initiatives. If the combatant commander determines that the situation may require some military response, he will direct an Operations Planning Team (OPT) to form and begin exploring possible courses of action. OPT membership (may also be known as a Crisis Action Team, Operations Planning Group or another similar term) is based on campaign requirements, and a sample team's membership is shown at Appendix A. Considerations for this step of the process include:

- Review current staff estimates.
- Review applicable plans for the area or the situation.
- Review Time-Phased Force Deployment Data (TPFDD).
- Determine potential military or non-military tasks.
- Determine levels of Host Nation Support which can be anticipated.
- Determine which forces (U.S. and coalition) may be available for planning.
- Obtain a current analysis of threat forces from the Theater Joint Intelligence Center (JIC).

Commander's Estimate

Before discussing the JOPP in detail, which is predominantly a staff process, it is important to highlight that the commander also conducts (with staff assistance) a separate and parallel process to enable him to adequately guide and lend his experience to campaign planning. This estimate process may result in a JOPES product of the same name. Though not a formal step in the JOPP, the commander's estimate is a dynamic process that records the commander's thoughts from initial situational awareness, through selection of a course of action (JOPP Steps 1-6). It is used to support all aspects of COA determination, and plan or order development, and lays out the decision process used by the commander (with staff assistance) in choosing a course of action to become the foundation of the strategic concept of the campaign. In the estimate, the commander evaluates the elements of the strategic environment that impact the command's ability to achieve strategic and operational objectives. The primary products of the estimate are the restated mission, commander's intent, and a course of action selected for further refinement into a strategic concept. These products, when combined with the results of the various staff estimates, may be abbreviated and promulgated in JOPES, as the Commander's Estimate, for SECDEF review and approval. A description of the Commander's Estimate is shown in Figure 4.

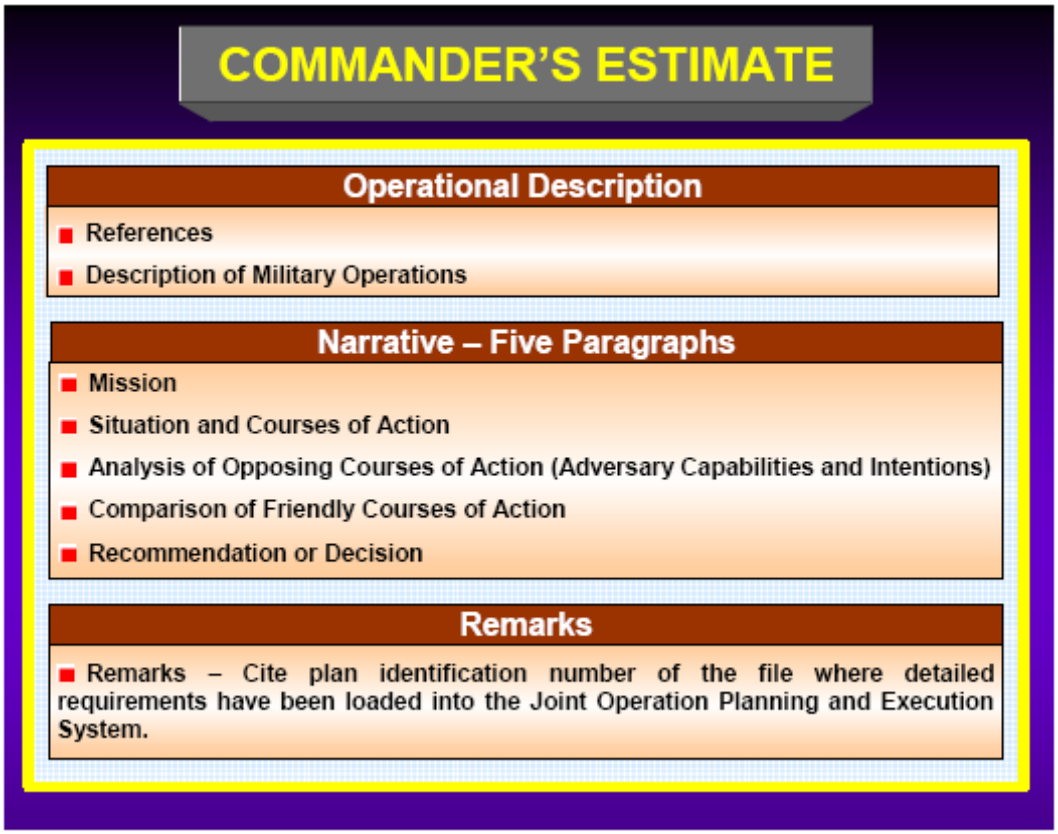

FIGURE 4: Commander's Estimate

Mission Analysis (JOPP Step 2)

Campaign planning, like tactical planning, begins with Mission Analysis. It orients and sets the initial bounds of planning - though this orientation and any planning boundaries must be continuously assessed throughout the campaign planning process, because the situation will likely change from planning initiation to plan completion. Assumptions may become invalid, or be replaced with competing facts that render many of the initial products of mission analysis "overcome by events." Objectives and end states may change based on political, economic or social factors, or in response to other unforeseen requirements that compete for national resources. Figure 5 highlights the key steps of mission analysis for the staff to follow, and continuously assess.

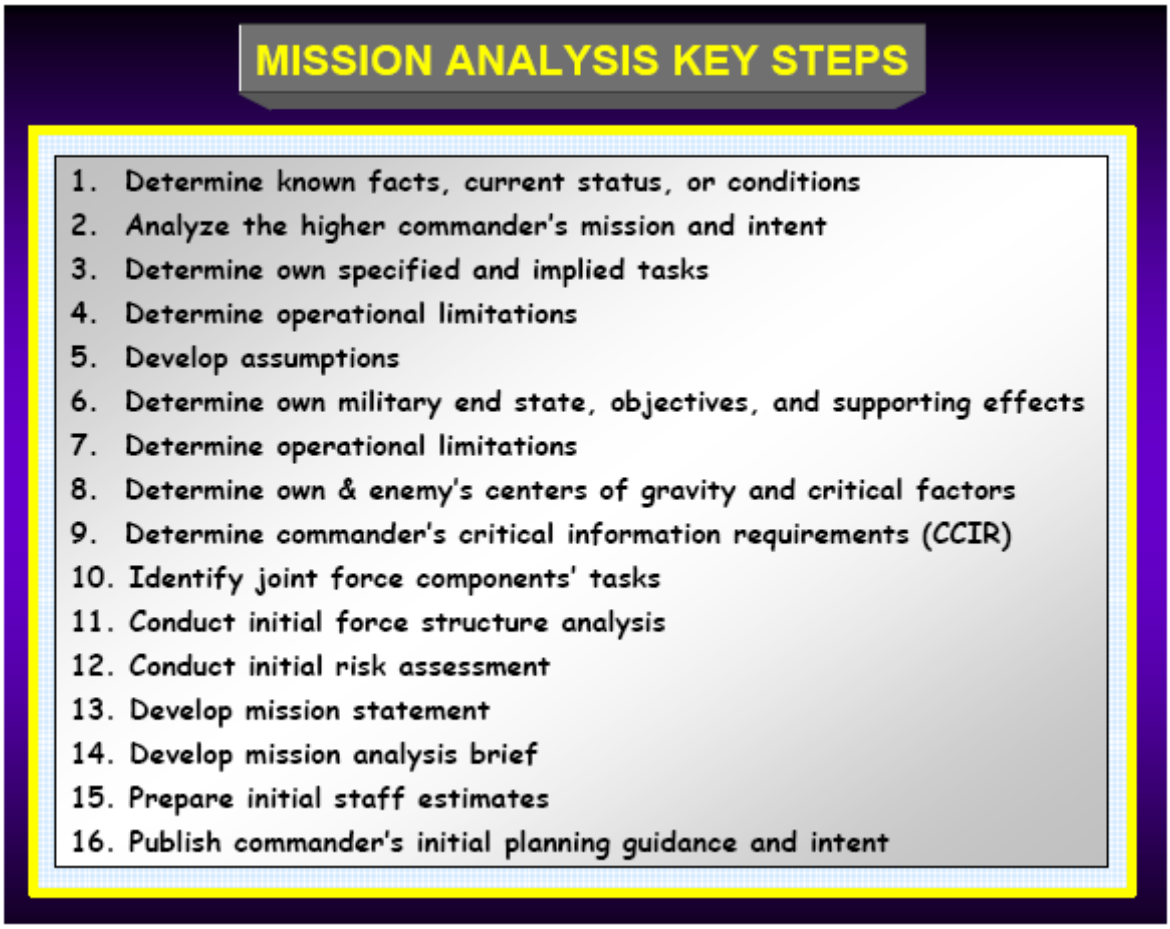

Figure 5: Mission Analysis Key Steps

The primary products of Mission Analysis are a revised mission statement, the commander's initial intent statement, initial planning guidance and initial Commander's Critical Information Requirements (CCIR).

The first step in Mission Analysis at the Combatant Command or Joint Force Command (JFC) level is to determine the strategic and operational end states and objectives. The end state gets to "why" we are developing a campaign plan and answers the question: "What does the command want the region and/or potential adversary to 'look like' at the conclusion of the campaign?" Objectives normally answer the question of "what" needs to be done to achieve the end state, and as you would expect, the distinction between end states and objectives can be very vague.

Answering these questions is what makes mission analysis different at this level when compared to the tactical level – you will not find the clear and definitive guidance in one location that you may be used to. There is no "higher order" to cut and paste from. Instead the National Security Strategy, National Defense Strategy,

National Military Strategy, National Security Presidential Directives (NSPD), SECDEF and Presidential speeches, and verbal guidance all provide input to help define an end state and corresponding objectives. With so many sources of guidance, consistency is normally an issue to be overcome. Though not directive in nature, guidance contained in various U.S. interagency and even international directives, such as United Nations Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR), will also impact campaign end states and objectives.

Planners recognize **two end states** in a single campaign. The *national strategic end state* describes the President's political, informational, economic, and military vision for the region or theater when operations conclude. National strategic end states are derived from Presidential/SECDEF guidance that is often vague. More often than not, senior military leaders will assist the President/ SECDEF in developing that end state. Below is an example of a national strategic end state:

> "An economically viable and stable Country X, without the capability to coerce its neighbors."

The *theater strategic or military end state* is a subset of the national strategic end state discussed above, and generally describes the *military conditions* that must be met to satisfy the objectives of the national strategic end state. Often, the military end state is achieved before the national strategic end state; it signifies when the President no longer requires the military as the *primary element* of national power required to achieve the remaining objectives of the national strategic end state. An example of a theater strategic or military end state:

"A defeated Country X where WMD delivery, production, and storage, as well as conventional force projection capabilities, are destroyed; and its remaining military is reorganized to adequately defend its borders."

To help determine the end state and objectives, begin with a system to identify strategic tasks. Specified and implied strategic tasks are determined from strategic guidance, as contained or implied in the many sources listed above. Examples of specified tasks given to JFCs are:

- Deter country X from coercing its neighbors
- Stop X's aggression against its neighbors
- Reduce X's WMD inventory, production and delivery means
- Remove X's regime
- Enforce the peace as outlined in the peace accords

(Note that the "tasks" above could be stated as objectives, as written, or rewritten as end states as follows:)

- Country X deterred from coercing its neighbors
- X's aggression against its neighbors stopped

- X's WMD inventory, production and delivery means reduced
- X's regime removed
- Peace enforced as outlined in the peace accords

(Don't get too wrapped up in labeling the "why" of a campaign as an end state or objective, just determine "why" you are conducting the campaign to guide you through the rest of the Joint Operation Planning Process.)

After identifying specified tasks, additional major tasks necessary to accomplish the assigned mission are identified. These additional major tasks are *implied tasks*. These are tasks that must be done in order to accomplish the specified tasks given by the President and SECDEF. Tasks that are inherent responsibilities (deploy, conduct reconnaissance, sustain, etc) are not considered implied tasks unless such routine tasks must be *coordinated* or *supported* by other commanders to be successfully accomplished. Examples of implied tasks are:

- Build and maintain a coalition
- Show force through Flexible Deterrent Options (FDO)
- Conduct Non-combatant Evacuation Operations (NEO)
- Focus information operations to discourage violence among country X's disparate population groups
- Destroy X's elite armored corps
- Provide military government in the wake of regime removal
- Secure and stabilize country X

Essential tasks are derived from the list of specified and implied tasks and are those tasks that must be accomplished in order to successfully complete the mission. These will be the tasks that appear in the mission statement.

Identify issues that require clarification at the national level or require Inter-agency coordination. As part of mission analysis ensure that Presidential / SECDEF aims and intent are clear – this may take some work, but strive to obtain clarity to enable both planning at the combatant command and subordinate levels. Clarify with the CJCS if necessary, as CJCS Warning Orders (WO) do not always state these aims as clearly as we would like. If clarification is not forthcoming, develop "assumed Presidential/SECDEF intent" as part of the situation paragraph. In your quest to gain clarity, recognize that the combatant commander may want to continue planning without resolution of all issues due to their complex or sensitive nature – making your job a bit more difficult.

<u>Revised Mission Statement</u>

After identifying the essential tasks, revised mission statements are normally developed using a *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, and *why* format. Essential tasks comprise the "what" in a mission statement, and are normally listed in the sequence to be accomplished. Often tasks given to the combatant commander from national

leaders are stated in language that doesn't fit doctrinal norms. Since mission statements are primarily written to focus military subordinates, it's important that doctrinal terms be used to describe the tasks to be completed. Mission statements must be continuously reconsidered, and revised as required. It is important to revisit the mission statement during the entire plan development process to ensure that it meets the needs of the commander and the national leadership. A sample combatant commander's mission statement might look like this:

"When directed, US___COM employs joint forces in concert with coalition partners in order to deter country X from coercing its neighbors and proliferating WMD. If deterrence fails, defeat X's armed forces, destroy known WMD production, storage and delivery capabilities, and destroy its ability to project force across its borders. On order, stabilize the theater, transition control to a U.N. peacekeeping force, and redeploy."

From this mission statement, the combatant commander determines what is to be done, when, where, why and by whom. The combatant commander states this restated mission in clear and concise terms that are understandable to superiors and subordinates to ensure clarity in both purpose and responsibility.

Effects, like end states and objectives, are an element of operational design. An effect is a physical and/or behavioral state of a *system* that results from an action. A system is best viewed as a functionally related group of elements that combine to form a complex whole, and the trick is to determine how the elements of the system actually interrelate to form a system. Methods to identify and analyze systems to fully understand relationships are continuously being developed, tested and refined. Effects provide a way to clarify the relationship between objectives and tasks at the Theater Strategic and Operational levels as depicted in Figure 6 – "what system effects are desired to best achieve the overall objectives?

<u>Theater Strategic Objectives</u>:
-Defeat Terrorism in Country X
-Ensure peace and stability in the region
<u>Effects:</u>
-Terrorists depart Country X
- X's government is representative of, and elected by, the population
-X's people support government
<u>Tasks:</u>
-Secure key economic/govt facilities
-Restore and protect key infrastructure (water/electric/etc)
-Conduct IO to discredit insurgent and terrorists agendas

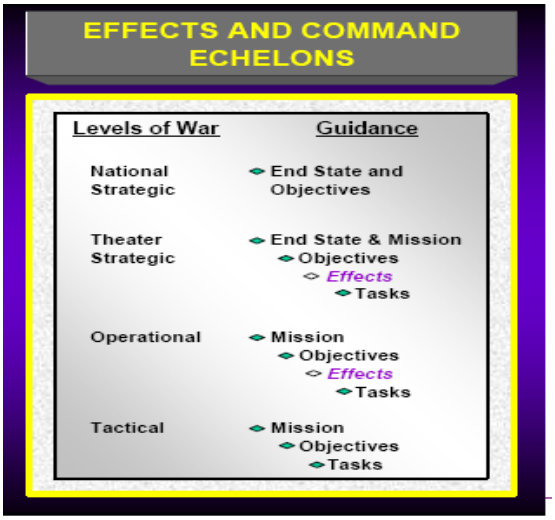

Figure 6: Objectives, Effects and Tasks

If the correct end state and corresponding objectives are not identified to orient the campaign, further planning will be meaningless – a perfect plan could be developed to achieve objectives that are NOT what the leadership of the nation desires. If this occurs, planning time will be wasted as planning will be initially oriented on the "wrong" end state or objectives. The criticality of this step is highlighted by the SECDEF's requirement for an IPR to allow visibility and possible course corrections once the combatant command has completed Mission Analysis.

Commander's Intent Statement

At the theater level, the Commander's Intent should articulate the purpose of the campaign being conducted and the combatant commander's vision of the military end state when military operations are concluded. The purpose of the campaign answers the question, "Why are we conducting this campaign?" This of course looks a lot like the national strategic end state you are trying to achieve. After reading the commander's intent, subordinates should have a clear understanding of why the campaign is being waged, and what the regional conditions will look like when the campaign is over. In this regard, intent must be crafted to allow subordinate commanders sufficient flexibility in accomplishing their assigned mission(s). Commander's intent does not repeat the concept of operations. Normally, combatant commanders provide intent for the overall campaign, and specific statements of intent for each phase of the campaign. Below are examples of commander's intent for the entire campaign, and for a single phase:

- Intent for Entire Campaign:

"My intent is to persuade country X through a show of coalition force to stop intimidating its neighbors and cooperate with diplomatic efforts to abandon its WMD programs. If X continues its belligerence and expansion of WMD programs, we will use force to reduce X's ability to threaten its neighbors, and restore the regional military balance of power. Before U.S. and coalition forces redeploy, X's military will be reduced by half, its modern equipment destroyed, its capability to project force across its borders eliminated, and its WMD stores, production capacity, and delivery systems eliminated."

- Intent for the "Seize Initiative" phase of the campaign:

"The purpose of this phase is to set the conditions for the counter-offensive by building combat power as rapidly as possible while shaping the operational environment for offensive action. Phase II is completed when X's offensive is halted, its combat forces are fixed and reduced by 30%, its military services are incapable of re-supplying fielded forces, the national leadership is incapable of effective communications with its forces, and U.S. and coalition forces are poised for offensive operations."

The intent statement may also contain an assessment of where and how the commander will accept risk during the operation. Guidance on what risk a commander will or will not accept may also be given in Commander's Planning Guidance before developing courses of action. Risk may be further categorized as Operational Risk (failure to accomplish the mission) as well as Personnel Risks (dangers and hazards to friendly personnel). Both types should be considered.

Commander's Planning Guidance

The commander approves the restated mission and gives the staff (and normally subordinate commanders) initial *planning guidance*. This guidance is essential for timely and effective COA development and analysis. The guidance should precede the preparation for conducting respective staff estimates to *implant a desired vision* of the forthcoming combat action into the minds of the staff. Enough guidance (preliminary decisions) must be provided to allow subordinates to plan the actions necessary to accomplish the mission consistent with the commander's intent.

- The commander may provide the planning guidance to the entire staff and/or subordinate commanders, or meet each staff officer or subordinate unit commander individually as the situation and information dictates. The guidance can be given in a written form or orally.

- The content of planning guidance varies from commander to commander and is dependent on the situation and time available. No format for the planning guidance is prescribed. However, the guidance should be sufficiently detailed to provide a clear direction to the staff or subordinate commanders. Planning guidance may include:

  - Situation
  - The restated mission – and associated objectives or desired effects
  - Purpose of the forthcoming military action
  - Information available (or unavailable) at the time
  - Forces available for planning
  - Limiting factors (constraints and restraints) – including time constraints for planning
  - Pertinent assumptions
  - Tentative Courses of Action (COAs) under consideration; friendly strengths to be emphasized or enemy weaknesses the COAs should attack; or specific planning tasks
  - Preliminary guidance for use (or non-use) of nuclear weapons
  - Coordinating instructions, to include requirements to coordinate and plan with the interagency
  - Acceptable level of risk to own and friendly forces
  - Information Operations guidance
  - Strategic Communications guidance
  - Initial CCIR

- Planning guidance can be explicit and detailed, or it can be very broad, allowing the staff and/or subordinate commanders wide latitude in developing subsequent COAs. However, no matter its scope, the content of planning guidance must be arranged in a logical sequence to reduce the chances of misunderstanding. Moreover, one must recognize that all the elements of planning guidance are *tentative only*. The commander may issue updated planning guidance throughout the decision-making process, though the initial planning guidance should provide the framework to keep the staff focused. There is no limitation as to the number of times the commander may refine his planning guidance.

Commander's Critical Information Requirements (CCIR)

CCIR are information requirements that are critical to timely information management and the *decision-making* process to drive successful mission accomplishment. Commanders select their CCIR and refine and update them continuously to focus the staff and subordinate units during both planning and execution. CCIR will consist of Priority Intelligence Requirements (PIR) focused on the enemy, and critical friendly force information. Critical friendly force information will often be oriented on Friendly Force Information Requirements (FFIR), which is information we need to know about friendly capabilities and status. Whether oriented on enemy or friendly information, PIR must be tied directly to a decision the commander will be required to make.

Situation Analysis

Commanders and staffs conduct situation analysis continuously, during all seven steps of the JOPP. Having established what to do (restated mission, and the vision of the desired end state), the commander must attempt to fully comprehend the factors that influence the campaign. Time determines to what extent a staff or commander can "fully comprehend" the overall situation. Several factors that will impact the mission must be examined to enable the commander to provide proper planning guidance to the staff and subordinate commands before they begin to develop and evaluate COAs. These factors include:

Geostrategic factors

How will the domestic and international environments impact the conduct of the campaign? To answer this question, consider the political long and short-term causes of conflict, domestic influences (including public will), competing demands for resources, economic realities, legal and moral implications, international interests, positions of international organizations, and the impact of information.

Consider the characteristics of the operational areas of the theater. Analyze topography, hydrography, climate, weather, and demographics. Evaluate how

weather, light conditions, the environment and terrain effect friendly and enemy forces and capabilities (i.e., C4ISR, maneuver, employment of special weapons, deception and psychological operations). Assess political, economic, sociological, informational, psychological and other factors including organization, communications, technology, industrial base, manpower and mobilization capacity, and transportation.

The PMESII (political, military, economic, social, information, infrastructure) construct is a useful means to organize and consider geostrategic factors to attempt to gain a better understanding of their impact and interrelationships. Though not a doctrinal term, PMESII is used widely in interagency planning communities to examine complex problems to determine key relationships that may impact decisively on campaign design.

A key to the PMESII approach for analyzing the operational environment is an understanding of the *system* and the relationship between *nodes* and the *links* between the nodes. *Nodes* are simply the tangible elements within a system that can be acted upon, or targeted such as people materiel or facilities. *Links* are the functional or behavioral relationships between nodes that allow the nodes to function as a system. JP 5-0 provides a good discussion on these subjects in Chapter IV.

Identify Limiting Factors

These are restrictions placed on the commander's freedom of action that may be given in the many sources of strategic direction, or derived from regional or international considerations or relationships. Limiting factors are generally categorized as constraints or restraints. Constraints are "must do" and restraints are "must not do" actions.

- Constraints: Constraints are tasks that the higher authority requires subordinates to perform (for example, defending a specific decisive point, maintaining an alliance, meeting a time suspense, or eliminating a specific enemy force, etc.)

- Restraints: Restraints are things the higher authority prohibits subordinate commander(s) or force(s) from doing (for example, not conducting preemptive or cross-border operations before declared hostilities, not approaching the enemy coast closer than 30 nautical miles, not decisively committing forces, etc.).

Identify Planning Assumptions

Assumptions are developed in order to continue the planning process in the absence of facts. They are, in fact, artificial devices to fill gaps in actual knowledge, but they play a crucial role in planning. Assumptions are initially developed in Mission Analysis, but as planning progresses, assumptions will be continuously

revalidated, and facts may replace assumptions as more information is gathered. A planning assumption must be both *valid and necessary*. It is valid if there is sufficient evidence to suggest that it will become a fact, and is necessary if it is required for the plan to be successfully executed. Assumptions should also be clearly stated. Normally, the higher the command echelon, the more initial assumptions will be made. A wrong assumption may partially or completely invalidate the entire plan. To account for wrong assumptions, planners should consider developing branches to the basic plan. Examples of assumptions follow:

- Political:

  - Countries A & B will allow overflight, basing, and Host Nation Support (HNS).
  - Countries C & D remain neutral.
  - Country E supports Country X with air and naval forces only.

- Forces:

  - V US Corps will not be available.
  - APS 3 and MPS 1 & 2 will be available for employment at C+10.
  - A CSG and an ESG are forward deployed in theater.

- Timeline:

  - Major deployments begin upon unambiguous warning of enemy attack.
  - X days ambiguous/unambiguous warning prior to enemy attack.
  - PRC activated on C day. Partial Mob activated on D day.
  - Theater access will not be obtained until C day.

- Enemy
  - X's forces can sustain an offensive for 7 days before culmination
  - X will use WMD once coalition forces cross the border

<u>Centers of Gravity, Critical Factors (Critical Capabilities, Critical Requirements, Critical Vulnerabilities), and Decisive Points</u>

If we could be everywhere at once, and match adversary strengths with overwhelming strength at every turn, COG analysis would provide little more than an interesting intellectual exercise for planners. However, there are never enough resources to accomplish the broad objectives required of a Combatant Command, without risk, in any campaign. Therefore, it's essential that you identify the enemy's center of gravity (COG) and neutralize or destroy it, by attacking the key inherent vulnerabilities within the COG. COG analysis provides a construct to focus scarce resources to achieve maximum effectiveness: the very heart of campaign planning. The success of any combatant commander will depend upon his ability to accurately

describe the enemy's COG, its vulnerabilities, and then direct actions against those vulnerabilities at the decisive place and at the right time; in short, he must determine and strike the enemy at the decisive points.

- Center of Gravity: Clausewitz defined the COG as the "hub of all power and movement, on which everything depends…the point at which all our energies should be directed." JP 5-0 defines the COG as, "the source of power that provides moral or physical strength, freedom of action, or will to act." Planners should strive to identify only one COG at any level of war, *at any given time,* in the campaign, or the term will lose its meaning and usefulness. The COG is always linked to the end state or objective, and (assuming the strategic end state or objectives do not change) normally, the strategic COG will not change during the campaign. The operational COG may, and normally will, change sometime during the span of the campaign stages. Examples of COGs at the strategic level can be national leaders, a ruling coalition, a strong-willed national population (the people), or a military service or component of it. At the operational level, common examples are a military force or component of it, a military capability that can hold another nation's interests or forces at risk, or a skilled and inspirational military commander. *COGs are not vulnerabilities*. However, within every COG lies inherent vulnerabilities, that when attacked, can render those COGs weaker and even more susceptible to direct attack and eventual destruction.

- Vulnerabilities: JP 5-0 defines a *critical vulnerability* as "an aspect or component of the adversary's critical requirements, which is deficient or vulnerable to direct or indirect attack that will create decisive or significant effects." This framework highlights the fact that a COG is usually a complex entity composed of multiple *critical capabilities* (using the PMESII systems approach, the COG would not be a single node, but rather several nodes and their respective links or relationships). Critical capabilities are the crucial enablers that allow the COG to function and are essential to achieve the adversary's objective, and may be best described as "the ability to……." The critical capabilities which make up a COG as a whole are enabled by *critical requirements*, which are means or aspects (resources or conditions) required for capabilities to be fully operational.

- Decisive Point: JP 5-0 describes a decisive point as, "A geographic place, specific key event, system, or function that, when acted upon, allows commanders to gain a marked advantage over an adversary or contribute materially to achieving a desired effect, thus greatly influencing the outcome of an action." Decisive points are always oriented on the key vulnerabilities that can only be identified through the COG or another method of systems analysis. Generally, JFCs attack adversary vulnerabilities at decisive points so that the results they achieve are disproportional to the military and other resources applied.

In theory, direct attacks against enemy centers of gravity are the most obvious and quickest path to victory—if it can be done in a prudent manner. Some adversary COGs are assailable directly because friendly capabilities enjoy significant overmatch. Such was the case in DESERT STORM when VII Corps attacked the Republican Guard (RG) in Kuwait and southern Iraq. The combined power of our armored and air forces significantly outmatched the RG divisions; therefore, they could be attacked directly with acceptable risk. Where direct attacks mean attacking into a strength equal to or stronger than your own, JFCs should seek an indirect approach until conditions are established that permit successful direct attacks. In this way, JFCs weaken enemy centers of gravity indirectly by attacking those critical capabilities and requirements *where they are sufficiently vulnerable* to achieve decisive results: LOCs, rear area logistics, C2, specific forces or military systems, and even military morale and public opinion can be attacked with this methodology.

It is also important to protect friendly COGs by mitigating or reducing the vulnerabilities associated with the critical requirements of our COGs. Examples can be long sea and air LOCs from CONUS or supporting theaters, or public opinion when it is not an outright center of gravity (as was the case for the United States during the latter years of the Vietnam War, or may be the case today). Even when public support is not a center of gravity, friendly strategy and operations will have to be conceived and conducted in such a manner as to preserve the level of public support which does exist.

Example: Envision a campaign conducted against an enemy that is postured to invade a neighboring country that is friendly to the U.S. The friendly neighbor has asked the U.S. to help stop the enemy forces from seizing its country. If you were the enemy commander planning this invasion, what would you view as the U.S. operational COG, vulnerabilities, and decisive points on the day you decided to attack?

U.S. Operational COG: Forward deployed (in-place) forces

U.S. Forward Deployed Forces Critical Capabilities or the "Ability to….":

- Deploy forces into theater
- Deter the enemy from actually attacking
- Defeat enemy attack, if deterrence fails
- Protect forces and capabilities within the host nation
- Sustain forward deployed forces

U.S. Forward Deployed Forces Critical Requirements:

- Strategic land, air and sea LOCs, strategic lift platforms (air and sea)
- Host Nation (HN) support and access (HN basing, infrastructure and overflight)
- Fuel, ammo, life support, repair parts

U.S. Forward Deployed Forces Vulnerabilities

- US or regional land, air and sea LOCs that support force deployment
- Dependence upon host nation access and support – potential HN hostility toward US actions or presence
- Assailable fuel, ammo, and repair parts
- Dependence upon enroute infrastructure – key infrastructure nodes

Decisive Points:

- US or In-theater ports, airfields and rail lines or roads
- Maritime or land choke points at canals, rivers or straits
- Enroute aerial refueling bases (air bridge)
- Friendly nation overflight corridors in theater
- U.S. prepositioned equipment sites
- Forward supply storage sites
- Daily press briefings

In the example above, the enemy commander could best neutralize the effectiveness and responsiveness of U.S. forward deployed forces by attacking the sustainment stocks for those forces, and denying U.S. forces access into the theater – at the decisive points shown.

JP 5-0 describes Lines of Operations as the linkage of several decisive points associated with the COG and the objectives of the campaign. Lines of operations may be physical or logical, or both. Physical lines of operations connect a series of decisive points over time to lead to defeat of the enemy or control of a geographic area. Logical lines of operation link multiple decisive points, in logic or purpose, to defeat the enemy or achieve an objective. Logical lines are most useful to describe JFC operations when positional or geographic reference to an enemy has less relevance, such as in shaping, counterinsurgency and stability operations. Determining lines of operation to shape friendly operations oriented on decisive points begins with COG analysis, continues through COA development and analysis, and is refined continuously as the strategic concept of the campaign is developed.

<u>Assess Enemy Capabilities</u>

The commander must identify enemy capabilities and then estimate how they may be used by the enemy commander. Enemy military capabilities are enabled primarily by his aerospace, naval, ground and SOF assets. Enemy capabilities are considered in the light of all known factors effecting military actions, including time, space, weather, terrain, and the strength and disposition of enemy forces, as well as within the PMESII construct discussed briefly earlier. The *primary* source of information on enemy military capabilities is the J2's *Intelligence Estimate* which should include the following:

- Strengths: List the number and size of enemy units committed and those available for reinforcement in the area. This should *not* be just a tabulation of numbers of aircraft, ships, missiles, or other weapons, *but* rather *an analysis of what strength the enemy commander can bring to bear in the area* in terms of ground, air, SOF and naval units committed and reinforcing. Aircraft sortie rates, missile delivery rates, unconventional, psychological, and other strengths the commander thinks may impact the ratio and effectiveness of forces in the area of operations or the theater of operations are considered.

- Composition of Forces: This includes the Order of Battle (OB) of major enemy formations, equivalent strengths of enemy and friendly units, and major weapons systems and their operational characteristics.

- Location and Disposition: The geographic location of enemy units and other elements of combat power in, or deployable, to the area or theater of operations.

- Reinforcements: Estimate friendly and enemy reinforcement capabilities that can impact the forthcoming action in the area under consideration. This study should include SOF, ground, naval, air elements; Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMD); and an estimate of the relative capacity to move these forces into the area of operations or theater of operations.

- Logistics: Summarize such considerations as transportation, supply, maintenance, hospitalization and evacuation, labor, construction, and other elements of logistical support.

- Time and Space Factors: Estimate where and when initial forces and reinforcements can be deployed and employed. Such a study will normally include distances and transit times by land, sea, and air from major bases or staging/deployment areas into the theater or area of operations; compute distances and transit times for each unit/force.

- Combat Efficiency: Estimate enemy state of training, readiness, battle experience, physical condition, morale, leadership, motivation, doctrine, discipline, and whatever significant strengths or weaknesses may appear from the preceding paragraphs.

The J2's *Joint Intelligence Preparation of the Operational Environment (JIPOE)* should focus on more than military capabilities, and include information and analysis on the diplomatic, economic and informational capabilities of the adversary. The PMESII construct offers a means to capture this information.

Develop Enemy Courses of Action (ECOA)

Accurate identification of enemy courses of action requires the commander and his staff to think "as the opponent thinks." From that perspective, it is necessary first to postulate possible enemy objectives and then visualize specific actions within the capabilities of enemy forces that can be directed to achieve these objectives. Potential enemy actions relating to specific physical objectives *normally need to be combined to form course of action statements*. These statements should be broad, but still clearly articulate the fundamental choices available to the enemy commander. Below are the minimum elements of an ECOA:

- Enemy objectives
- Enemy force posture at the outset of the conflict
- How the enemy will employ its force to accomplish its objectives
- How the enemy force will be postured when the conflict is over
- A sketch to accompany the verbiage in points 2-4 above

Once all ECOAs have been identified, ensure they are distinct by reducing duplication and/or combining them as required.

Prioritize ECOAs and Select One as the Baseline

The commander and staff will list ECOAs in the order that they are *likely* to be adopted based on the analysis conducted above. To establish such a sequence requires an analysis of the situation from the enemy's perspective, coupled with what may be known about the enemy's *intentions*. Enemy intentions should not be applied uncritically, that is, to consider only what one *believes* the enemy will do. *The commander and staff must avoid eliminating any viable enemy ECOA based solely on perceived enemy intentions.* Also, identify which ECOA is the most dangerous to friendly forces and objectives. Often, the most likely and dangerous ECOAs are not the same, so a choice must be made as to which ECOA will become the baseline assumption for friendly planning. Usually, commanders consider the enemy's most likely ECOA as their baseline for friendly action unless the consequences of not focusing on the most dangerous ECOA make it prohibitive to do otherwise.

Regardless of which ECOA is chosen to support the baseline planning effort, you must ensure that branches are developed for the others, *as time permits*. After selecting an ECOA to support your baseline planning effort, a listing of associated enemy vulnerabilities that can be exploited by your own forces should be compiled. This list will aid in subsequent steps when your own COAs are analyzed against the selected baseline ECOA, and also assist in determining the advantages and disadvantages of your own COAs when they are compared.

Intelligence Considerations

The combatant commander's requirements must be the principal driver of the intelligence system. Based upon the combatant commander's guidance, Essential Elements of Information (EEI) are prepared and Requests for Information (RFI) submitted. The J2 can then focus the intelligence effort to collecting, processing, producing and disseminating the required intelligence. While EEI can be derived from many sources, the estimate process can identify aspects of assumptions, enemy capabilities, geostrategic factors, etc. that need to be clarified by the intelligence system.

Course of Action (COA) Development (JOPP Step 3)

A COA is any force employment option open to a commander that, if adopted, would result in the accomplishment of the campaign mission. For each COA, the commander must envision the employment of own/friendly forces and assets as a whole, taking into account externally imposed limitations, the factual situation in the area of operations, and the conclusions reached during mission analysis.

The output of COA development is a tentative concept of operation (with sketch if possible) in which the commander describes for each COA, in broad but clear terms, what is to be done, the size of forces deemed necessary, and where and how the force (or other resources) needs to be brought to bear. A tentative COA should be simple, brief, and complete. A complete COA will answer the following questions:

- How much force is required to accomplish the mission?
- Generally, in what order should coalition forces be deployed?
- Where and how should coalition aerospace, naval, ground and SO forces be employed in theater?
- What major tasks must be performed and in what sequence?
- How is the coalition to be sustained for the duration of the campaign?
- What are the command relationships?
- How does the COA achieve the desired end state?

When developing a COA, we all tend to plan the beginning of the campaign and work to the end. However, that's not the best way to achieve the desired result. Planners should do just the opposite: plan the end of the campaign and work backwards to the beginning. Here's a step by step approach to developing a complete COA:

Step 1. Determine how much force will be needed in the theater at the end of the campaign, what those forces will be doing, and how those forces will be postured geographically. Use troop to task analysis. It may be useful to visualize this at the end of each stage (pre-hostilities, hostilities and post-hostilities) of the campaign *if planning time is available*, but remember at this point you are only developing a

concept, not refining a plan. You can get to this detail later. Draw a sketch to help you visualize the forces and their location.

Step 2. Looking at your sketch and working backwards, determine the best way to get the forces you just postured in step 1 to their ultimate locations at the end of the campaign from a base in friendly territory. This will help you formulate your desired basing plan for the beginning, middle and end of the campaign.

Step 3. Using your mission statement as a guide, determine the tasks the force must accomplish enroute to their ultimate positions at the end of the campaign. Draw a sketch of the maneuver plan, and also consider force and other resource requirements and tasks for logical, vice just physical, lines of operation. Make sure your force does everything the SECDEF has directed the CCDR to do. Address force size and composition issues as you look at the tasks to be accomplished.

Step 4. Determine the basing required to posture the force in friendly territory, and the tasks the force must accomplish to get to these bases. Sketch this as part of a deployment plan.

Step 5. Determine if the force you just considered is enough to accomplish all the tasks you identified in Mission Analysis. Adjust the force strength to accomplish the tasks. This is mostly art, based on your previous experience, and grounded in your ability to apply military science. You should now be able to answer the first question above.

Step 6. Given the tasks to be performed, determine in what order you want the force to be deployed into theater. Consider force categories such as *combat, C4ISR, protection, sustainment, theater enablers, and theater opening*. You can now answer the second question.

Step 7. You now have all the information necessary to answer the rest of the questions regarding force employment, major tasks and their sequencing, sustainment and command relationships.

Time available, the commander, and the nature of the mission will dictate the number of COAs to be considered. Staff sections continually conduct course of action development through an ongoing staff estimate process to ensure COA validity. The variability or distinctiveness of each COA is normally ensured by emphasizing distinctions in regard to:

- focus of direction of the main effort
- scheme of maneuver (air, land, maritime)
- task organization
- anticipated use of reserves
- primary defeat mechanism or primary method of mission accomplishment
- important logistic matters.

COA Development Considerations

- Review mission analysis and commander's guidance.
- Brainstorm options. Potential COAs may be based on varied use of forces (ARFOR, MARFOR, etc.) or varied use of capabilities (Information, Economic, Diplomatic, Maneuver, Intelligence, Fires, Command and Control, or Force Protection).
- Because COAs are meant to be rough concepts, *phasing at this point is not useful* as it is too time consuming a process. Therefore all that's required is to organize tasks and lines of operation into a Pre-hostilities, Hostilities, Post-hostilities arrangement.
- Test COA validity against the following criteria:

  - Adequate: Can the mission be accomplished within the commander's guidance?

  - Feasible: Can the mission be accomplished within established time, space and resource limitations?

  - Acceptable: Is the advantage gained balanced with the cost and risk? Risk may be assessed for force protection, mission accomplishment, U.S. or international public and media opinion, or other factors.

  - Distinguishable: Are the COAs different? Valid distinguishing characteristics of COAs include simultaneous and sequential operations, task organization, scheme of maneuver, defeat mechanism, or main effort.

  - Completeness: Does the COA incorporate:
    - objectives (including desired effects and tasks)
    - major forces required
    - concepts for deployment, employment and sustainment
    - time estimates for achieving objectives
    - military end state and mission success criteria

  - Compliance with Joint Doctrine: Does the COA comply with Joint Doctrine? *If not, then articulate why and how you will deviate from doctrine.*

- Other Considerations: COAs should attempt to preserve flexibility for the commander well into the operation, and be dependent upon the fewest possible assumptions. Each COA should create combat power asymmetries that the commander can exploit for success.

Course of Action Analysis (JOPP Step 4)

Each COA is analyzed separately to reveal a number of key factors such as; potential decision points, COA advantages and disadvantages, and CCIR. COA analysis is the staff's visualization of the flow of an operation and is an important step in building decision support tools for the commander. Wargaming provides a useful means for the commander and staff to analyze a course of action. Wargaming is a process whereby each COA is tested against the enemy's course of action in an action-reaction-counteraction methodology. While time consuming, this procedure reveals strengths and weaknesses of each friendly course of action, anticipates battlefield events, determines task organization for combat, identifies decision points, highlights the need for potential branches and sequels, and identifies cross-service or component support requirements.

There are three key decisions to make before COA analysis begins.

1. Decide what type of wargame will be used. This decision should be based on the commander's guidance, time and resources available, staff expertise, and availability of simulation models. Wargaming has manual and computer-assisted components. Manual wargaming makes up the bulk of activity when staffs wargame. Automation is normally used to resolve questions regarding outcomes during specific moments in the fight. But even when automation is used, it can never supplant the combined experience of the persons conducting the wargame. When time and automated resources are lacking, manual-only wargaming will suffice.

2. Prioritize the enemy COAs the wargame is to be analyzed against. In time constrained situations it may not be possible to wargame against all courses of action, so consider carefully "why" you select the ECOA(s) to wargame against.

3. Finally, you must decide on some preliminary evaluation criteria (sometimes called governing factors) to use in determining COA advantages and disadvantages. These should be selected carefully from the insights available in the Mission Analysis process. Through the wargaming process, some initial evaluation criteria may fall out, and others may become apparent for you to use later in COA comparison.

As you conduct the wargame, interpret the results of analysis to ensure the COA remains valid. If it becomes readily apparent that the COA is inadequate, infeasible or unacceptable, discard or modify the COA and concentrate on other COAs. You may also find that you need to combine aspects of COAs to develop new ones. Report to the commander when this is done.

COA Analysis Considerations

- Information Review: mission analysis, commander's intent, planning guidance, combatant commander's orders.
- Determine wargame type
- Gather tools, materials, personnel and data:
  - Friendly courses of action to be analyzed
  - Enemy courses of action against which you will evaluate friendly COAs
  - Initial Evaluation Criteria to consider throughout the wargaming process
  - Representations of the operational area such as maps, overlays, etc.
  - Representations of friendly and enemy force dispositions and capabilities
  - Subject matter experts (JIACG, LNOs, Coalition Partners, INTEL, SJA, POLAD, Log, IO, C4, PAO, etc.)
  - Red cell
  - Scribe/recorder

A simple manual wargame method employs an action-reaction-counteraction format between "Blue" and "Red" teams. The supervisor of the wargame directs the questioning and ensures that wargame time isn't wasted. Critical to the process are Blue and Red teams who *THINK* and speak for their forces when directed by the supervisor. A separate recorder should be identified to record the results in a useful format (example at Figure 7), and to record any issues that can't be resolved quickly. Note that at this point in the planning process, there are no phases developed for the COA; only Pre-hostilities, Hostilities, and Post-hostilties stages are considered. Phasing comes later when the planner begins to flesh out the selected COA into a strategic concept.

Record of Wargame COA #

	Pre-hostilities		Hostilities		Post-hostilities	
	Act	Ctr-action	Act	Ctr-action	Act	Ctr-action
Enemy						
	React	Ctr-action	React	Ctr-action	React	Ctr-action
Friendly						

Branches:

Sequels:

FIGURE 7: Sample Format for Recording Wargaming Results

- Keep discussions elevated to the theater level.
- Balance between stifling creativity and making progress.
- Ensure the deception plan is woven into the analysis.

Desired Results of the Wargame

- Pre-conditions or start points and end state for each stage
- Advantages/disadvantages of the COA
- Unresolved issues
- COA modifications or refinements
- Estimated duration of critical events
- Major tasks for components
- Identify critical events & decision points
- Identify branches and sequels
- Identify risks
- Recommended EEIs and supporting collection plan priorities
- Highlight ROE requirements

COA Comparison (JOPP Step 5)

The COA comparison process evaluates each of the COAs against evaluation criteria. The inputs to COA comparison are the wargame results and staff estimates that were conducted independently by each of the staff elements. Participation in the comparison process is directed by the chief of staff or OPT leader. Comparison is normally conducted by the staff planners, *in isolation* from the combatant commander, and may include the subordinate component staffs. The *results* of COA comparison are briefed to the commander in terms of COA advantages and disadvantages, with a recommendation on the preferred COA.

COAs are not compared to each other directly. Each COA is considered independently of the other COAs and is compared to a set of evaluation criteria or governing factors. Some of these criteria may be directed by the combatant commander, but most criteria will be developed on the basis of the staff's areas of expertise. Determining the evaluation criteria to be used is a critical requirement that begins before comparison of the COAs takes place. Take some time and energy with this step. If invalid evaluation criteria are used in COA comparison, the process will not result in selection of the "best" COA for further refinement as a Strategic Concept.

COA comparison facilitates the commander's decision-making process by balancing the *ends, means, ways and risk* of each COA. Each staff planner is responsible for developing evaluation criteria for his functional area, and then the staff as a whole will select the most critical criteria as a basis to compare the COAs.

The staff should remain as objective as possible in comparing the COAs and be careful of manipulating criteria to promote a "favorite COA." Weighting of evaluation criteria is a frequently used, and often useful technique, available to identify the most critical criteria. Weighting however, like selecting and "defining" evaluation criteria, should be done prior to actually comparing the COAs.

COA Approval (JOPP Step 6)

Throughout the COA development process, the combatant commander conducts an independent analysis of the mission, possible courses of action, and relative merits and risks associated with each COA. The commander, upon receiving the staff's recommendation, combines his analysis with the staff recommendation, and then decides on a COA to be further refined into a Strategic Concept.

The forum for presenting the results of COA comparison is the Commander's Decision Brief. Typically this briefing provides the combatant commander with an update of the current situation, an overview of the COAs considered, and a discussion of the results of COA comparison. The OPT chief or the Chief of Staff may facilitate the decision brief. Normally, each staff principal and component liaison will describe their comparison (evaluation) criteria and results. The component commanders and their staff principals may be linked with the Headquarters by Video Teleconference (VTC) in order to provide direct feedback to the commander.

COA comparison remains a subjective process and should not be turned into a mathematical exercise, though using +,-,0, or 1,2,3 as expressions of relative value may be appropriate. The key element in this process is the ability to *articulate to the commander why* one COA is preferred over another in terms of how well the COA can meet the requirements of the evaluation criteria. Figure 8 provides an example of a sample COA comparison worksheet, where (+) indicates a superior rating in relation to that criteria, (0) is average, and (–) is poor. In this example, COA #3 was determined to be the best.

COA Decision

Once the combatant commander makes a decision on a selected COA, provides any additional guidance, and updates his intent, the staff completes the Commander's Estimate. This estimate is forwarded for SECDEF review as a JOPES product and is the basis for a decision on which COA will be refined and potentially executed. The Commander's Estimate provides a concise statement of how the combatant commander intends to accomplish the mission, and provides the necessary focus for campaign planning and OPLAN/OPORD development. Enclosure J of JOPES Volume I (CJCSI 3122.01) provides the format for the Commander's Estimate.

COA Comparison

	COA 1	COA 2	COA 3
• Force build-up time	o	o	o
• Quickness of decision (duration)	o	--	o
• Forces enemy to move	+	o	o
• C2 Simplicity	--	o	+
• Operational Flexibility (Axis shift)	+	+	o
• Best prepared to deter	o	o	o
• Protects the force	o	--	+
• Ease of sustainment	o	o	+
• Manages post-regime chaos	o	+	--
• Post-hostilities posture	o	o	o
	1	0	2

FIGURE 8: Sample COA Comparison Worksheet

Plan or Order Development (JOPP Step 7)

Strategic Concept

Contingency planning will normally result in plans, while crisis planning will normally result in orders. To fully develop these plans or orders, the combatant commander's selected COA (if approved by the SECDEF/POTUS) is expanded and refined into the strategic concept of the campaign. The strategic concept provides the framework and visualization for conducting campaigns and major operations that focus on the employment of the force as a whole. Operation **phasing**, the **intent** of individual phases, and the criteria for when **transition** between phases occurs is communicated, as are the effects to be achieved, sequencing of events, and expected enemy reactions to friendly forces as the campaign unfolds.

Flexible Campaign Plan

The campaign plan must be flexible. The key to flexibility is to develop enough contingencies through branch and sequel planning to accommodate the dynamic counters of the enemy. If branch and sequel planning has been effective, there's no need for the plan to be thrown out with the first tactical contact. A well-developed plan *WILL* survive first contact with the enemy. Furthermore, the plan must have attainable goals and be adaptable to changing guidance or situations affecting the desired outcome. It should be continually reviewed and revised as required to

remain current and viable. In this regard, planners must diligently pay attention to the assumptions of the plan and revise them as necessary when the situation changes.

How long is a written campaign plan? There is no fixed template. A good rule of thumb is to keep it as brief as possible, or no one will read it. When the plan is executed, implementing orders will usually be longer.

Plan/Order Synchronization

Synchronization is a step in the planning process that is not discussed in joint publications, though its result – synergy, is discussed. It's an Army tactical process that has been adapted to campaign planning by combatant commands.

Probably the most critical tool used in developing an OPLAN/OPORD is the Synchronization Wargame. Similar to the COA Analysis Wargame in methodology, it is an excellent forum to resolve outstanding issues regarding the execution of the campaign. It helps flesh out the necessary details within each phase to make the plan executable in time, space and purpose to maximize the effectiveness of joint, coalition and interagency resources – the process by which the Strategic Concept is turned into an executable plan.

Normally, a staff will allocate several days to a week in order to synchronize the campaign, spending at least a day on each phase of the campaign. Synchronization is accomplished similar to the wargaming that was done in COA analysis, though the process is much more detailed and thorough. The OPT chief supervises the synchronization drill. A trained Red team is used to play the enemy and neutrals; and the components, LNOs, and functional experts to include conventional and unconventional warfare specialists, political advisors, economic specialists, information operators and theater protection experts, make up the Blue team.

A sample synchronization matrix is shown in Figure 9. The categories on the left represent the theater military capabilities along with the elements of national power – all of which can be lines of operation. Time is shown along the top, marking key events during the campaign when decisions and other events are expected to occur.

After the Synchronization Wargame (or during it, if possible), review all assumptions on which the plan is based, and adjust the plan as needed if any assumptions have changed or are now invalid.

Lines of Operation	Time I W=C	(4 days) D
Ground	Deter w/2 Bdes; combined exercise w/W and Y ground forces; build defense	Deploy SBCT; Continue deterrence w/ Div + coaliton; build forces; support hostage rescue
Air	Deploy C4ISR and AETF; establish air bridge and C2 in Z; beddown acft; Establish CSAR and counter air	Deploy additional AEWs; prep to attack HPTs Support hostage rescue; establish ISR
Sea	MODLOC MPS-1, repos'n MPS-2; pos'n CSG and SAG within X's opn'l range;	Deploy 2d and 3rd CSG and MCM capability; Conduct FON, MIO; support CFACC
SOF	Deploy JSOTF W, N, E; infil X;conduct SR and UW; prep for hostage resuce	Est JSOTF W, N, E; infil X;continue SR and UW; rehearse for hostage resuce
Protection	Deploy TMD; establish C2; coord protection assets w/HNs	Continue to deploy TMD; establish C2; coord protection assets w/HNs
Sustainment	Open ports; JROSI; begin HN contracting; pos'n sustainment stocks fwd; pos'n trans assets; draw prepos'n equip	Continue to set theater
C2	Establish fwd HQ in Y and deploy fwd Component HQs; designate JRACC **** PRC mobilizaton**	JSOTFs N, S, E, W in place; component HQs established in theater; JIATF set for hostage rescue
Diplomatic	Gain access; secure HNS and overflight; X's leadership; build coalition; negotiate for hostage release →	Provide support to regional partners; isolate
Information	Target X's regime-promotes instability, no WMD=no attack, Hostages-help on the way →	
Economic	Ongoing sanctions →	

FIGURE 9: Sample Record of Phase I Synchronization

Objectives and Subordinate Tasks

The theater and supporting operational objectives assigned to subordinates are critical elements of the theater-strategic design of the campaign. They establish the conditions necessary to reach the desired end state and achieve the national strategic objectives. The combatant commander carefully defines the objectives to ensure clarity of theater and operational intent, and identify specific tasks required to achieve those objectives. Tasks are shaped by the concept of operations—intended sequencing and integration of air, land, sea, special operations, and space capabilities. Tasks are prioritized in order of criticality while considering the enemy's objectives and the need to gain advantage.

One of the fundamental purposes of a campaign plan is to synchronize employment of all available military (land, sea, air, and special operations, as well as space, information and protection) forces and capabilities. This overwhelming application of military capabilities can be achieved by assigning the appropriate tasks to components for each phase, though supporting commanders will also contribute with their own capabilities. These tasks can be derived from an understanding of how component and supporting forces interrelate, not only among themselves, but also with respect to the enemy.

Concept of Sustainment

Sustainment of the joint force will be specified in the logistics concept which is derived from the logistic estimate of supportability for the selected COA and considers the throughput system—the transportation and distribution system that provides the means to move the joint force and materiel resources as required. The logistic concept is more than gathering information on the various logistics functions. Rather, it entails the organization of capabilities and resources into an overall theater campaign sustainment concept and:

- Applies the concepts of operational art as described in JP 3-0 and 5-0.
- Organizes joint, single-service, and supporting forces,—in conjunction with multinational, interagency, non-governmental, or international organizations — into a cohesive force designed to sustain subordinate campaigns and operations.
- Retains strategic reserves.
- Establishes support and command relationships.
- Integrates the nation's mobilization, deployment, and sustainment efforts into the combatant commanders' employment and logistics concepts.
- Concentrates forces and materiel resources strategically so that the right force is available at the designated times and places to conduct decisive operations.

Joint Force Organization

Organizations and relationships are based on the campaign design, complexity of the campaign, and the degree of control required. Establishing command relationships includes determining the types of subordinate commands and the degree of authority to be delegated to each. Clear definition of command relationships further clarifies the intent of the combatant commander and contributes to decentralized execution and unity of effort. The combatant commander has the authority to determine the types of subordinate commands from several doctrinal options, including Service components, functional components, and subordinate joint commands. The options for delegating authority emanate from COCOM and range from command to support relationships. **Regardless of the Command or Support relationships selected, it is the Combatant (or JFC) Commander's responsibility to ensure that these relationships are understood and clear to all subordinate, adjacent and supporting HQs.** Appendix C discusses organization options in more detail.

The following are considerations for establishing Joint Force Organizations:

- JFCs will normally designate JFACCs and organize special operations forces into a functional component.
- Joint Forces will normally be organized with a combination of Service and functional components with operational responsibilities.
- Functional component staffs should be joint with Service representation in approximate proportion to the mix of subordinate forces. These staffs will be required to be organized and trained prior to employment in order to be efficient and effective, which will require advanced planning.
- Combatant commanders may establish supporting/supported relationships between components to facilitate operations.
- Combatant commanders define the authority and responsibilities of functional component commanders based on the strategic concept of operations, and may alter their authority and responsibility during the course of an operation.
- Combatant commanders must balance the need for centralized direction with decentralized execution.
- Major changes in the Joint Force organization are normally conducted at phase changes.

Requirements for Supporting Plans

The combatant commander, Service component commanders, functional component commanders, and subordinate JFCs consider resource support requirements that are integrated, vertically and horizontally, into supporting plans for theater and subordinate campaigns or major operations. The combatant commander and subordinate commanders, and their staffs develop these plans based on unified support that can be provided from national-level assets, supporting combatant commanders, Service and functional components, alliance or coalition partners, other government agencies, non-government or private agencies, international agencies, United Nations efforts, and host nations.

Supporting plans may address tasks and support requirements during mobilization, pre-deployment, deployment, force projection operations, employment, post-conflict operations, redeployment, and demobilization. They address requirements for political, informational, as well as economic coordination, and military support. Supporting commanders synchronize their plans with the theater campaign plan. They identify resources and necessary liaison requirements early, as the plan is being developed.

Supporting and subordinate commanders, and supporting U.S. departments and agencies, use the combatant commander's strategic concept of operations and tasks for subordinates as the basis for determining the necessary support for each phase of the campaign plan. Supporting and subordinate commanders respond to the identified tasks by preparing supporting plans and submitting them for approval to the supported combatant commander.

The following are considerations for developing supporting plans:

- The geographic/supported combatant commander identifies Combat Support Agency (e.g. NSA, DIA, NGA) support requirements for the campaign through the development or revalidation of a supporting space and/or intelligence plan. This plan will identify requirements for national-level support from the DoD intelligence agencies, NRO, NGA, USSTRATCOM, and the military Services.

- Through the development of a mobility plan and a civil engineering support plan, the combatant commander identifies engineer requirements for strategic and operational mobility, construction, and infrastructure for the campaign. These plans will identify requirements for national-level support from non-DoD government agencies and the Services.

- Strategic Command and Special Operations Command may prepare supporting plans for the employment of unique forces from their commands in support of a theater campaign plan.

- Functional supporting operations plans may also be developed. JP 3-30 describes the Joint Air Operations Plan (JAOP) as the functional plan required to be prepared by the JFACC. Similarly, NDP 5 refers to a Naval Operations Plan to be prepared by a Naval Component Commander. By analogy, the JFLCC and the JFSOCC should prepare Joint Land Operations Plans and Joint Special Operations Plans respectively.

This pamphlet will be revised as necessary.

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Appendix A

OPERATIONAL PLANNING TEAM

An Operational Planning Team (OPT) is analogous to a “battlestaff” that is found at the tactical level. OPTs may be created to address particular planning requirements, crises, or other projects and may be tailored to fit unique circumstances. OPT representatives generally come from the command’s staff, but may include LNOs from subordinate commands, supporting commands, coalition partners, or other agencies.

The OPT concept is applicable whether a staff is organized along traditional lines (e.g., J-1, J-2, J-3, J-4, J-5, J-6) or in accordance with the Standing Joint Force Headquarters structure (Operations, Plans, Information Operations, Knowledge Management). For contingency planning, the staff’s Plans Division is normally responsible for directing the OPT; however, other divisions may manage OPTs that address issues within their proponency.

Chief of Plans or Future Operations	(J-5/J35)
Contingency Plans Officer	(J-5/J35)
Force Planner	(J-5)
Information Operations Planner	(J-3)
Chief, Net Assessment	(J-3)
Effects Planner	(J-3)
Intelligence Planner	(J-2)
Engineer Planner	(Eng)
Logistics Planner	(J-4)
Medical Planner	(Surgeon)
Civil Affairs Planner	(J-5)
Policy Analyst	(J-5)
Land Component Command or ARFOR LNO	
Air Component Command or AFFOR LNO	
Maritime Component Command or NAVFOR LNO	
Marine Forces or MARFOR LNO	
Special Operations Component LNO	
Joint Interagency Coordination Group	(DOS, DOJ, DOT, CIA, etc)
Legal Advisor	(SJA)
Public Affairs	(PAO)
Network and Communications Planner	(J-6)
STRATCOM LNO	(STRATCOM)
TRANSCOM LNO	(TRANSCOM)
Adjacent Combatant Cmd LNO	
Defense Threat Reduction Agency LNO	(DTRA)

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Appendix B

Planning Times and Dates

Times — (**C-, D-, M-days** end at 2400 hours Universal Time (Zulu time) and are assumed to be 24 hours long for planning.) The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff normally coordinates the proposed date with the commanders of the appropriate unified and specified commands, as well as any recommended changes to C-day. **L-hour** will be established per plan, crisis, or theater of operations and will apply to both air and surface movements. Normally, L hour will be established to allow C-day to be a 24-hour day.

a. **C-day.** The unnamed day on which a deployment operation commences or is to commence. The deployment may be movement of troops, cargo, weapon systems, or a combination of these elements using any or all types of transport. The letter “C” will be the only one used to denote the above. The highest command or headquarters responsible for coordinating the planning will specify the exact meaning of C-day within the aforementioned definition. The command or headquarters directly responsible for the execution of the operation, if other than the one coordinating the planning, will do so in light of the meaning specified by the highest command or headquarters coordinating the planning.

b. **D-day.** The unnamed day on which a particular operation commences or is to commence.

c. **F-hour.** The effective time of announcement by the Secretary of Defense to the Military Departments of a decision to mobilize Reserve units.

d. **H-hour.** The specific hour on D-day at which a particular operation commences.

e. **H-hour (amphibious operations).** For amphibious operations, the time the first assault elements are scheduled to touch down on the beach, or a landing zone, and in some cases the commencement of countermine breaching operations.

f. **I-day** (CJCSM 3110.01A/JSCP) The day on which the Intelligence Community determines that within a potential crisis situation, a development occurs that may signal a heightened threat to U.S. interests. Although the scope and direction of the threat is ambiguous, the Intelligence Community responds by focusing collection and other resources to monitor and report on the situation as it evolves.

g. **L-hour.** The specific hour on C-day at which a deployment operation commences or is to commence.

h. **L-hour (amphibious operations).** In amphibious operations, the time at which the first helicopter of the helicopter-borne assault wave touches down in the landing zone.

i. **M-day.** The term used to designate the unnamed day on which full mobilization commences or is due to commence.

j. **N-day.** The unnamed day an active duty unit is notified for deployment or redeployment.

k. **R-day.** Redeployment day. The day on which redeployment of major combat, combat support, and combat service support forces begins in an operation.

l. **S-day.** The day the President authorizes Selective Reserve callup (not more than 200,000).

m. **T-day.** The effective day coincident with Presidential declaration of national emergency and authorization of partial mobilization (not more than 1,000,000 personnel exclusive of the 200,000 callup).

n. **W-day.** Declared by the President, W-day is associated with an adversary decision to prepare for war (unambiguous strategic warning).

Indications and warning — Those intelligence activities intended to detect and report time sensitive intelligence on foreign developments that could involve a threat to the United States or allied and/or coalition military, political, or economic interests or to US citizens abroad. It includes forewarning of enemy actions or intentions; the imminence of hostilities; insurgency; nuclear/nonnuclear attack on the United States, its overseas forces, or allied and/or coalition nations; hostile reactions to US reconnaissance activities; terrorists' attacks; and other similar events. Also called **I&W.** See also **information; intelligence.**
(JP 2-01).

Appendix C

Command Structures

Service Components

All joint forces include Service components that provide administrative and logistics support. Conducting operations through Service components has certain advantages, which include:

- clear and uncomplicated command lines.
- established staffs, familiar with each other.
- common Standard Operating Procedures.

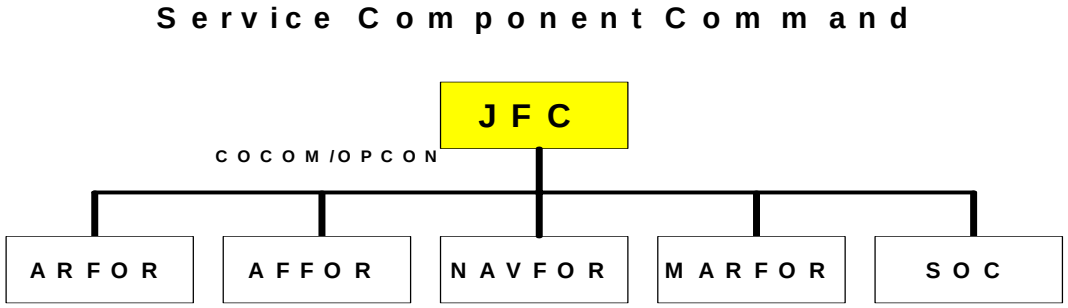

FIGURE C-1: Command Organized Along Service Components

However, keep in mind that operations conducted by services will inherently have seams between the forces of the adjacent services. To ensure success, coordination along these seams is an absolute requirement. However, non-uniform procedures and lack of interoperability in the past have made this coordination extremely challenging. As our Services become more joint regarding procedures and equipment, organizing unified operations along service lines will become more rare. Organizing unified operations along Service component lines should however still be considered when the components have disparate objectives, don't share the same operational environment, or no time is available to form and train subordinate joint or functional headquarters. A unified command organized along Service component lines is illustrated in Figure C-1.

Functional Components

JFCs may establish functional components to provide centralized direction and control of certain functions and types of operations. Figure C-2 portrays a unified command organized along functional component lines. The advantages of conducting operations through functional components are:

- the arrangement allows for forces of two different services to operate together in the same medium.
- takes advantage of the synergy that can be gained between complimentary joint forces.

Functional Component Command

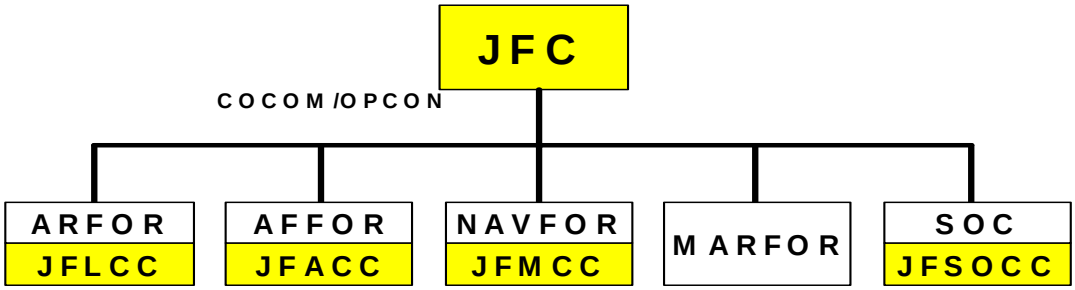

FIGURE C-2: Command Organized Along Functional Components

The cost of establishing these types of relationships is the ad hoc nature of staff formation. Ad hoc staffs need time to work out effective operating procedures. Combatant commanders are now consistently using exercises and standing orders to reduce the ad hoc nature of these organizations. Examples of functional components are the Joint Force Land Component Commander (JFLCC), Joint Force Air Component Commander (JFACC), Joint Force Special Operations Commander (JFSOCC), and Joint Force Maritime Component Commander (JFMCC). Note that establishing functional commands doesn't dissolve the Service component responsibilities. Normally, a Service component will be "dual-hatted" when designated as a functional component, but doesn't have to be. JFCs may establish separate functional and Service components in order to separate, for the purposes of better management, the warfighting tasks from the Title 10 "service" tasks. Additionally, Service components are normally selected for functional command based upon the weight of their contribution to the effort. Due to its ability to sustain a theater operation, the Army, more often than not, will perform the JFLCC role. For most conflicts, the Air Force will normally draw the JFACC role, however, the sea services could be JFACCs in smaller scale contingencies when access to host nation basing is an issue. For the same reasons, the Navy will normally be the JFMCC. Special Operations Commands (SOC) are inherently joint – they have no single Service component. Title 10 responsibilities to support the SOCs are met by both the individual Services and Special Operations Command (SOCOM).

Subordinate Joint Commands

Combatant Commanders may also establish subordinate joint task forces (JTF), especially in cases where the mission given such a commander requires a fully joint response, but doesn't require all the assets of a unified command to accomplish. Figure C-3 shows a unified command organized functionally with a JTF. Advantages of establishing a subordinate joint command are:

- takes advantage of the synergy that can be gained between the complimentary capabilities of a fully joint force.
- provides unity of command

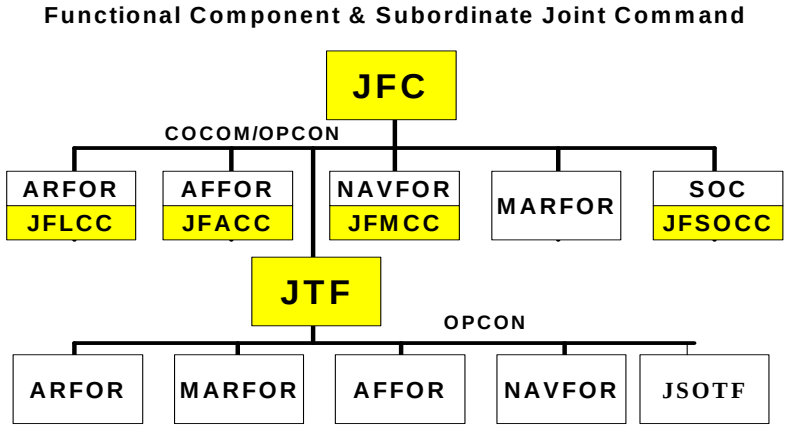

Figure C-3: Command Organized Functionally with a JTF

The disadvantage, like functional commands, is that the staff may be formed ad hoc – without established SOPs and experience working together. Recent initiatives such as the Standing Joint Force Headquarters (SJFHQ) seek to reduce the potential ad hoc nature of JFC headquarters. Note that the JTF has its own Service forces, and may or may not have its own functional commands. A unified commander could have a mix of functional and subordinate joint commands when he's been given disparate geographic missions within his AOR. Such was the case during Operation IRAQI FREEDOM when the commander, USCENTCOM employed a functional arrangement to organize his unified command in the Iraq / Kuwait theater of operations, yet employed a subordinate joint command (JTF-180) to operate in Afghanistan in support of Operation ENDURING FREEDOM.

Combined Force Organization

Fusing a coalition together is much more complex, therefore attaining unity of effort can be very challenging. There are essentially three types of combined C2 structures, *parallel*, *lead nation*, and *combination*.

Parallel Command Structures

When two or more nations combine to form a coalition, and none of the nations are designated to take the lead, a parallel structure must be formed (Figure C-4). The reasons why nations won't subordinate their forces to a foreign command are many, including political factors, national prestige, lack of Status of Forces Agreements (SOFA), lack of military interoperability, protection of intelligence sources, etc. By definition, a parallel command structure has two or more lead nations of equal influence.

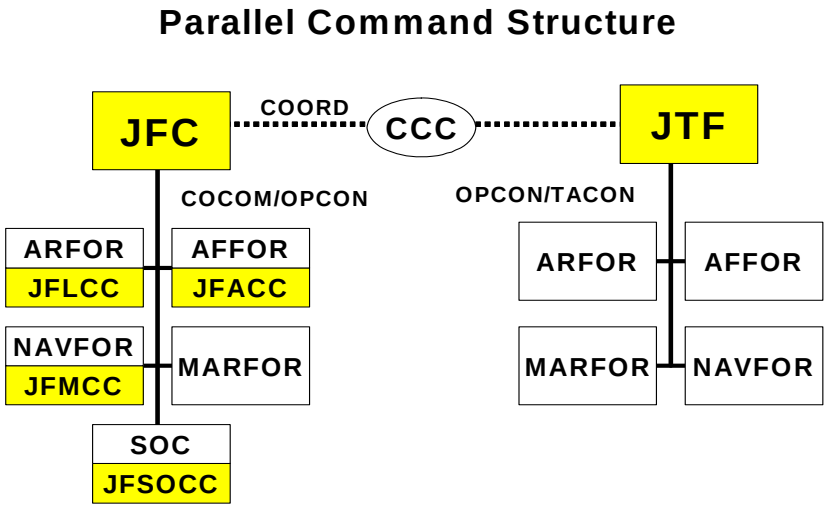

FIGURE C-4: U.S. and Partner Coalition Command Structure

Therefore, parallel structures don't ensure unity of command; however, they can (with deliberate focus) achieve unity of effort. Establishing a Coalition Coordination Center (CCC) at the theater level in order to coordinate and synchronize combined operations throughout the theater campaign is one means to enhance unity of effort. Reasons to form a parallel structure as opposed to subordinating nations under the authority of one nation are:

- It's much easier to form the coalition this way; partners are more comfortable politically.
- It eases the ability to sustain the force because each nation supports itself.
- It's politically and militarily easier for a nation to withdraw from the coalition once the coalition's objectives diverge from those of a single nation.
- Greater staff effectiveness within each nations' militaries because the staffs of different nations remain non-integrated.

Alternatively, parallel command structures have seams that a wise adversary may exploit, and the lack of coalition integration may lead to pursuit of a course of action that sub-optimizes the capabilities of the combined force.

Lead Nation Command Structures

Lead nation command structures are usually found in alliances, or in coalitions where other nations have an existing working relationship with the lead nation. An example is shown below in Figure C-5:

Lead Nation Command Structure

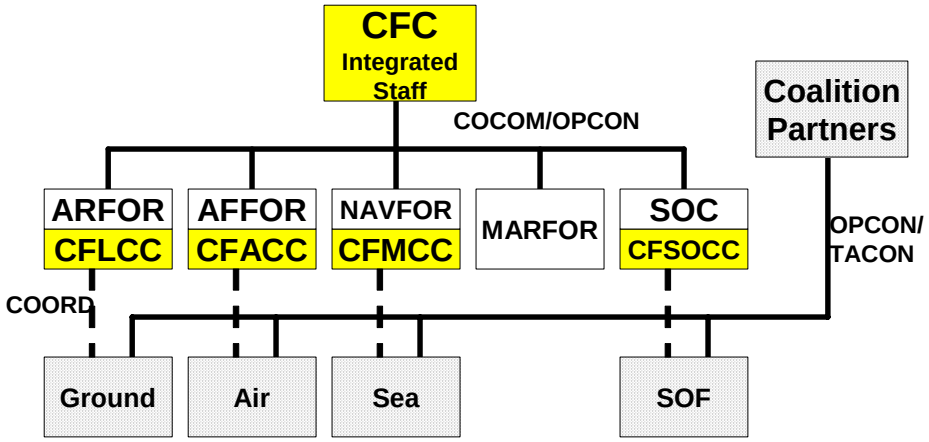

FIGURE C-5: Lead Nation Command Structure

NATO will many times use a lead nation command structure. Unlike parallel structures, lead nation staffs are usually integrated if national disclosure policy issues, intelligence sharing, SOFAs, and interoperability problems can be worked out in advance. Lead nation structures are advantageous:

- Because the seams within the combined force can be minimized.
- Because it ensures unity of command.
- Because it will be harder to shatter due to the level of integration.

There are drawbacks however. Lead nation structures are not without political issues that can paralyze the Combined Force Commander (CFC). Because every nation has a “vote”, decision-making can be slow and cumbersome. Finally, each nation will have to compromise on sovereignty issues to get along with one another. Note the CFC’s integrated staff. Depending upon the amount of time the coalition has to form, integration could take place down to the functional/ service component

level. Coalition forces will normally support the lead nation either in an OPCON or TACON relationship.

Combination Command Structures

Combination structures are a blend of parallel and lead nation structures as shown in Figure C-6. This normally happens in large coalitions where U.S. allies are willing to accede the lead to the U.S., but other non-allied partners are not. Such was the case in DESERT SHIELD/DESERT STORM. NATO allies were integrated into the U.S. structure, whereas Arab nations were integrated into the Saudi Structure. Both lead nations were fused by a coalition coordination center where plans were coordinated and synchronized. Note the allies subordinated their forces under U.S. control in either an OPCON or TACON relationship, whereas the other coalition partners were led by a parallel nation equal in stature to the U.S., and their forces only had a coordinating relationship with ours.

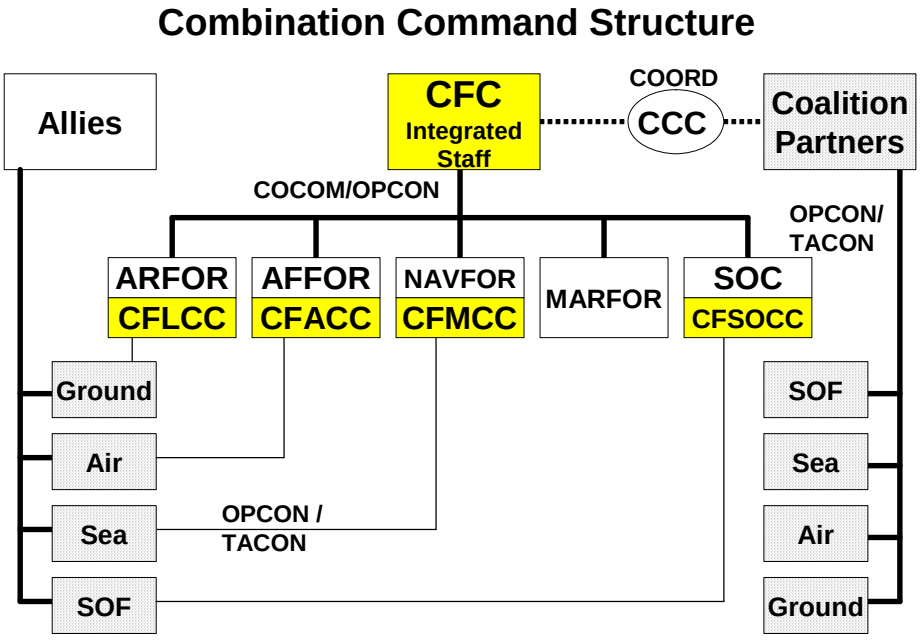

FIGURE C-6: Combination Command Structure

Appendix D

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